

**Biochemical composition of Tunisian *Nigella sativa* L. at different growth stages
and assessment of the phytotoxic potential of its organic fractions**

Ines ZRIBI^{ab*}, Nadia Ghezal^{ab}, Haifa Sbai^b, Gaëtan Richard^c, Marie Laure FAUCONNIER^c,
Rabiaa HAOUALA^b

^a Department of Biology of Higher Institute of Biotechnology Monastir, University of Monastir,
Tunisia

^b Higher Agronomic Institute of Chott-Mariem, IRESA- 4042 Chott-Mariem, Sousse, Tunisia
(UR13AGR05).

^c University of Liege - Gembloux Agro-Bio Tech. General and Organic Chemistry Unit.
Passage des Déportés, 2. B-5030 Gembloux (Belgium).

*Corresponding author: E-mail address: Ines_zraibi@yahoo.fr (I. Zribi).

Abstract

The present study was conducted to study some biochemical characteristics of Tunisian *Nigella sativa* at different developmental stages of plant growth (vegetative, flowering and fruiting stages) and to screen the chemical constituents and the phytotoxic activity of their organic extracts on lettuce (*Lactuca sativa* L.). The GC-MS analysis of petroleum ether fractions revealed that *N. sativa* seeds were rich in linoleic acid (58% of total fatty acids), oleic acid (22% of total fatty acids) and palmitic acid (12% of total fatty acids). The fatty acid composition of aerial parts showed an increase in the level of saturated fatty acids accompanied by a concomitant decrease of polyunsaturated fatty acids levels during the developmental stage. The phytochemical investigation showed that among the organic extracts, the methanolic extract from aerial parts harvested at the fruiting stage contained the

highest amounts of phenolic and flavonoid compounds. The phytotoxic study revealed that *N. sativa* negatively affected the growth of lettuce plants. This effect was largely dependent on the developmental stage at which material was collected and the nature of extracting solvent. The methanolic extract of aerial parts harvested at the vegetative stage was the most active on seedling growth of lettuce.

Key Words: Tunisian *Nigella sativa*, developmental stages, biochemical characteristics, phytochemicals, phytotoxicity.

Introduction

Flowering plants undergo several distinct transitions during their development, including germination, vegetative growth to reproductive development and eventually seed set and senescence (Huijser and Schmid, 2011). The transitions between these phases are regulated by complex interactions between endogenous cues that include hormones and carbohydrate assimilates and environmental cues, such as temperature, light and nutrients (Huijser and Schmid, 2011; Yu, Lian, and Wang, 2015). According to Naghiloo et al. (2012), the knowledge of the factors that determine the chemical variability and yield for each species is important to optimize the time of collection and to obtain higher yields of phytochemicals compounds in particular for medicinal plants. In fact, it has been documented that environmental factors and developmental stage can have profound effects on yield, phytochemical constituents and biological activities of plant species (Thapliyal and Nene, 1970; Naghiloo et al., 2012; Çirak, Radusiene, and Camass, 2008 and Çirak, Radusiene, Janulis, and Ivanauskas, 2007). On the other hand, successful determination of biologically active compounds from plant material is largely dependent on the nature of the solvent used in the extraction procedure, time of extraction and temperature.

Nigella sativa L. is an annual herbaceous plant belonging to the **Ranunculacea** family, commonly known as black seed (Yoruk, Tatar, Keles, and Cakir, 2017). The seeds are widely used for culinary and medicinal purposes. The phytochemicals reported in *N. sativa* seeds include alkaloids, such as Nigellicin, Nigellimine and Nigellidine, flavonoids and terpenoids (Atta-ur-Rahman, Cun-heng, and Clardy, 1985; Atta-ur-Rahman and Zaman, 1992; Atta-ur-Rahman et al., 1995; Merfort et al., 1997; Bourgou, Bettaieb, Hamrouni, and Marzouk, 2012). Several phenolic compounds have been identified in leaves and roots such as gallic acid, chlorogénic acid, *p*-dihydroxybenzoic acid, quercetin, epicatechin and catechin (Bourgou et al., 2008). *N. sativa* has been extensively studied for its biological activities and shown to possess wide spectrum of activities such as antidiabetic, anticancer and immunomodulatory, analgesic, antimicrobial, **anti-helminthic**, antiinflammatory, gastroprotective, hepatoprotective, and antioxidant properties (Burits and Bucar, 2000; Ahmad et al., 2013). For several years, scientists focused their attention on plant secondary chemicals to develop bio-herbicides as an alternative strategy for weed control in order to reduce the negative impact of synthetic herbicides on the environment and human health. In our previous study, we found that seeds and aerial parts aqueous extracts exerted significant phytotoxic potential on lettuce (Zribi, Omezzine, and Haouala, 2014). This investigation will evaluate the effects of **three** different solvents for their relative capacity to extract phytochemicals (such as phenolic compounds) from aerial parts of *N. sativa* and to determine the active ingredients responsible for the phytotoxic activity.

The purpose of the present work was to assess carbohydrates, major mineral (P, K, Ca), lipids contents and the quantitative analysis of phenolic compounds in different organic extracts **of** Tunisian *N. sativa* at different developmental stages of plant growth (vegetative, flowering and fruiting stages) and to screen the phytotoxic activity of their organic extracts on *Lactuca sativa* L. a plant model known to be very sensitive to allelochemicals.

Material and methods

Plant material

Tunisian *Nigella sativa* seeds were obtained from an herbal market in Sousse (Tunisia). The plants were sown in January 2013 (temperature 13/15°C), under standard greenhouse condition in the experimental station of the Higher Institute of Agronomy of Chott Mariem, University of Sousse (latitude 35°56'45.6''N, longitude 10°33'57.6 ''E, coastal region, East of Tunisia with a sub-humid climate); photoperiod light-dark cycle LD 10:14; Irrigation: every 2-3 days. Samplings were carried out during the vegetative [plants with 8-9 leaves (60 days old)], flowering [50% of flowers open (105 days old)] and fruiting stages [50% of the pods have reached a typical length (125 days old)].

Total water soluble carbohydrates

Total soluble sugar content was determined by phenol sulfuric acid method (Dubois, Gilles, Hamilton, Ruberg, and Smith, 1956) using glucose (Sigma chemicals) as standard. Fresh plant material (0.1 g) was extracted with 2 ml of 80% ethanol for 48 h. After evaporation of ethanol on a water-bath at 70°C, 20 ml of distilled water were added, and the mixture was shaken vigorously. To 1 ml of sample, 1 ml of 5% phenol, and 2 ml of H₂SO₄ were added, and the mixture was stirred. After cooling in an ice bath for 25 min, the absorbance of the sample was recorded at 490 nm ($R^2 = 0.994$).

Calcium, phosphorus and potassium contents

After drying and grinding, 1 g of seeds or aerial part at different growth stages were dry-ashed at 220°C for 2 hours, then at 550°C for 6 hours. Ash was put in solution with 2 ml of concentrated hydrochloric acid (HCl) and heated on a hot plate until evaporation. Five ml of N/10 HCl (8.24 mL of concentrated HCl 36% in 500 mL distilled water) were added and

the mixture was kept for 10min then the residue was filtered and brought up to a 100 ml with distilled water. Calcium (Ca) and potassium (K) contents were determined by atomic adsorption methods (Martin-Prével, Gonard, and Gautier, 1984). The phosphorus (P) content was estimated using the Nitrovanadomolibdate method described by Fleury and Leclerc (1943).

Phytochemical screening

Seeds and dried aerial parts were extracted successively with petroleum ether, chloroform and methanol in their increasing order of polarity. The aerial parts were dried in shade, and powdered in a mechanical grinder. Fifty grams of seeds and dried plant material were kept in petroleum ether for 7 days at room temperature and then extracted with chloroform followed by methanol (Omezzine, Bouaziz, Simmonds, and Haouala, 2014). The organic extracts were evaporated to dryness under reduced pressure at 40-45°C, using a Rotavapor R-114 (Buchi, France). For each sample, the residue was weighed and the extraction yield was determined. Dry fractions were stored at 4°C until use. All organic solvents were analytical reagent grade.

Determination of Total phenolics (TPC), flavonoids ((TFC), flavonols and flavones (TFIC) and proanthocyanidins (TPAC) (condensed tannins) contents

The phenolics content was measured using the modified Folin-Ciocalteu method (Velioglu, Mazza, Gao, and Oomah, 1998). Gallic acid was used as a standard to produce the calibration curve. Total phenol content was expressed as mg gallic acid equivalent/g dry matter (mg GAE/g dw) ($R^2 = 0.996$). The flavonoids (*TFd*) content was determined spectrophotometrically according to the method described by Omezzine and Haouala (2013) and expressed as mg quercetine equivalent/g dry weight (mg QE/g dw) using quercetin calibration curve ($R^2 = 0.993$). Total flavonols and flavones content was determined using the method described by Omezzine and Haouala (2013) and expressed as mg quercetin equivalent/g dry weight (mg QE/g dw) using quercetin calibration curve ($R^2 = 0.932$). The

proanthocyanidins content was performed using the method described by Broadhurst and Jones (1978) and expressed as mg catechin equivalent/g dry weight (mg CE/g dw) using catechin calibration curve ($R^2 = 0.995$).

Identification of fatty acids in petroleum ether extracts using GC-FID Analysis

To determine the fatty acid composition, approximately 10 mg of petroleum ether seeds and aerial parts extracts were dissolved in 0.2 ml of hexane, followed by the addition of 0.5 ml of Boron trifluoride (BF_3) reagent (methanol / BF_3 -Methanol (14% Boron trifluoride in methanol) / hexane (55:25:20). Samples were placed in a water-bath at 70°C for 1.5 h in tightly closed tubes, then 0.5 ml of saturated NaCl solution, 0.2 ml of 10% H_2SO_4 , and 7 to 8 ml of hexane were added to the tubes. The samples were shaken, and 0.5 µl of the organic layer was taken to determine the fatty acid composition by gas chromatography (GC). GC analyses were performed using a Hewlett-Packard 6890 Series gas chromatograph equipped with a flame ionization detector (FID) and an electronic pressure control (EPC) injector. An apolar column VF-WAX ms (Agilent J&W cp9205) (30 m, 0.25 mm id, 0.25 µm film thickness) was used. The carrier gas was N_2 with a flow rate of 1.7 ml/min. The injection was performed in on-column mode. The analyses were performed using the following temperature program: raise from 55°C to 150°C (at 30°C/min), then up to 250 °C at 5°C/ min, and finally maintained at 250°C for 10 min. Analyses were performed in triplicate. Fatty acid methyl esters were identified by comparison of their retention times with those of pure reference standards (external standards) purchased from sigma-aldrich (Diegem, Belgium). Individual fatty acids were expressed as percentage of the total fatty acids in the considered sample (Toma et al., 2013).

Phytotoxic bioassays

Tests with organic extracts

The organic residues, obtained with petroleum ether, chloroform and methanol, were dissolved in an appropriate organic solvent (the same solvent used for the extraction) at 1, 3 and 6 mg/ml to prepare the test solutions. Organic extracts were tested on the plant model *Lactuca sativa* L, a species known to be very sensitive to allelochemicals (Ervin and Wetzel, 2003). Four controls were used: distilled water, petroleum ether, chloroform and methanol to eliminate the organic solvent effect. Filter paper, placed in each Petri dish, was wetted with distilled water or various organic extracts. Solvents were evaporated at 24 °C for 24 h, then 5 ml of distilled water were added and 20 soaked seeds/pre-germinated seeds were placed in the Petri dishes (Omezzine et al., 2014). Two sets of Petri plates were prepared. In the first set, imbibed seeds were used to evaluate the effect of extracts on germination. The second set of pre-germinated seeds, with 1 mm root length, was used to evaluate the effect of extracts on root and shoot growth. The Petri dishes were placed in a growth chamber at 24/22 °C for 14/10 h light and dark periods, respectively. Germination was determined by counting the number of seeds that had germinated at 24 h intervals over 6 days. Germination percentage (G%) was determined using the following formulae on the seventh bioassay day (Eq. 1):

$$G\% = \frac{\text{Total number of germinated seeds}}{\text{Total number of seeds}} \times 100 \quad (\text{Eq. 1})$$

The index of germination (GI) was calculated using the following formula (Eq. 2) (Chiapuso, Sanchez, Reigosa, Gonzalez, and Pellissier, 1997):

$$GI = (N_1) \cdot 1 + (N_2 - N_1) \cdot 1/2 + (N_3 - N_2) \cdot 1/3 + \dots + (N_n - N_{n-1}) \cdot 1/n \quad (\text{Eq. 2})$$

where $N_1, N_2, N_3, \dots, N_n$ = Number of germinated seeds observed after 1, 2, 3, ..., n days. This index represents the delay in germination induced by extract (Ahmed and Wardle, 1994); GI (% of control) was obtained by dividing GI of extract by GI of control and multiplied by 100.

Shoot and root lengths were measured 7 days after placing the pre-germinated seeds in each Petri dish. Data were transformed to percent of control for analysis. The following formula (Eq. 3) was used to calculate the % inhibition/stimulation (Chung, Ahn, and Yun, 2001):

$$\frac{\text{Inhibition} (-)}{\text{Stimulation}(+)} (\%) = \left[\frac{\text{extract} - \text{control}}{\text{Control}} \right] \times 100 \quad (\text{Eq. 3})$$

Inhibition index (I)

The concentration –response effects of organic extracts of *N. sativa* on lettuce germination, root and shoot length were assessed by the Whole-range assessment method. Inhibition index was calculated by Eq. 4, used by Liu, An, and Wu (2007), where concentrations tested ranged from 0 to D_n (D_n was dose–concentration tested from 0, D_1 , D_2 ... D_n), D_c was the threshold dose at which response equaled the value of control and above which the responses were inhibitory, $R(0)$ was the response at 0 extract concentration (control) and $f(D)$ represented the response function. Inhibition of germination and reduction of root and shoot growth, caused by *N. sativa* extracts, were used to calculate inhibition index (I) using the WESIA (Whole-range Evaluation of the Strength of Inhibition in Allelopathic-bioassay) software (Liu et al., 2007):

$$I = \frac{\int_{D_c}^{D_n} [R(0) - f(D)] dD}{\int_0^{D_n} R(0) dD} = 1 - \left[\frac{D_c}{D_n} + \frac{1}{R(0)D_n} \int_{D_c}^{D_n} f(D) dD \right] \quad (\text{Eq. 4})$$

Statistical analysis

All data were reported as means \pm standard deviation (S.D.) of three replicates and analyzed using IBM SPSS Statistics 20.0. Experimental data were subjected to one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) followed by Duncan's Multiple Range Test (DMRT) to determine significance differences among mean values at the probability level of 0.05.

Results and discussion

Phytochemical screening of *N. sativa*

Sugars, which are the first products of photosynthesis, are converted into starch, protein, oil, cellulose, lignin, and thousands of other chemical compounds. Soluble sugar content reached the maximum level at flowering stage (0.05 mg/mg FW) (Figure 1). According to Konow and Wang (2001), the changes in starch, sucrose, and glucose concentration in the leaves frequently coincide with mobilization of carbohydrates necessary for flower spike formation. Urban, Lu, and Thibaud (2004) reported that the soluble sugars needed to support flowering were produced through starch conversion in stems.

The mineral compositions of *N. sativa* (K, Ca and P) which were measured in seeds and aerial parts are shown in Figure 2. In seeds, P is the most abundant element followed by K. Our results are in agreement with previous studies reporting that the most abundant mineral in *N. sativa* seeds was K (Atta, 2003; Cheikh-Rouhou et al., 2007 and Sultan et al., 2009). Potassium and Ca levels were higher during the vegetative growth stage (Ca = 0.86%; K= 2.93%) than during flowering and fruiting stages. While, no significant difference between stages was recorded for P (P = 0.2%). According to Bojović and Stojanović (2005), the greatest influence on development of plants in general and their leaf surface of macrometabolic elements is exerted by nitrogen, which effect is enhanced by P and to a lesser extent by K. P is involved in many metabolic processes essential for normal growth, such as photosynthesis. This element exerts influence on stability of the chlorophyll molecule. K is also essential for photosynthesis because it activates many enzymes involved in this process. Ca plays a very important role in plant growth and nutrition, as well as in cell wall deposition and increasing mechanical strength of the plant Karimi, Yari, and Ghasmpour (2012). Our results are in agreement with the results of Akporhonor, Egwaikhide, and Odilora (2005) who reported reduction in K levels in maize plants stem with age. Karimi et al. (2012) reported that K and Ca decreased markedly with increasing maturity of *Satureja hortensis*, while P did not greatly alter by stage of maturity.

217 The analyses of Fatty acid methyl esters (FAMES) were done by gas chromatography GC-FID
 218 on petroleum ether fraction of *N. sativa* seeds and aerial parts harvested at vegetative,
 219 flowering and fruiting stages (Table 2). Our results emphasize the significant role of growth
 220 stage governing lipid content and composition. The oil content of *N. sativa* seeds calculated
 221 from the petroleum ether extract on the basis of dry matter weight was of 24 %. This result
 222 was slightly lower than that obtained by Cheikh-Rouhou et al. (2007) who reported an oil
 223 content of 28.48% in *N. sativa* seeds from Tunisian location; however, they proceeded to the
 224 extraction of oil by Soxhlet apparatus during 8 h using the hexane solvent. As shown in Table
 225 1, linoleic (C18:2 = 58%), oleic (C18:1 = 21%) and palmitic acids (C16:0 = 14%) represents
 226 the major fatty acid of petroleum ether fraction of *N. sativa* seeds. Our results are in
 227 agreement with those reported by Cheikh-Rouhou et al. 2007 and Toma et al. (2013).

228 As it can be seen from Table 2, the fatty acids in petroleum ether fraction from aeriels parts
 229 harvested at vegetative, flowering and fruiting stages are dominated by the common plant
 230 plasma membrane longer-chain fatty acids, such as C18 and C16, which are typical in higher
 231 plants (Millar, Smith, and Kunst, 2000). This study showed that fatty acids composition varies
 232 considerably with the growth stages. Aerials parts harvested at vegetative stage were
 233 characterised by a high proportion of linoleic acid representing 38,5 % of fatty acid methyl
 234 esters (FAMES), followed by palmitic and oleic acids. During the flowering stage, linolenic
 235 and palmitic acids were the major compounds representing 38 and 27 % of FAMES
 236 respectively, followed by linoleic acid. During the fruiting stage the level of palmitic acid was
 237 increased to 58 % of FAMES accompanied by a concomitant drastic decrease in the level of
 238 linoleic and linolenic acids to 3% of FAMES. Bourgou, Pichette, Lavoie, Marzouka, and
 239 Legault (2012) reported that linolenic, palmitic and linoleic acids were the major compounds
 240 in *N. sativa* fresh vegetative leaves cultured under hydroponic conditions. Several
 241 developmental processes during the life cycle of plants are characterized by changes in the

composition and turnover of intracellular lipids (Feussner, Kühn, and Wasternack, 2001). According to Zhang et al. (2005), to maintain membrane fluidity, plants increase the content of saturated and monounsaturated fatty acids, modulating their metabolism in response to increasing temperatures. Thus, increasing the saturation level of fatty acids appears to be critical for maintaining membrane stability and enhancing heat tolerance (Larkindale and Huang, 2004; Bitá and Gerats, 2013). Yang and Ohlrogge (2009) reported that during leaf senescence, macromolecule breakdown occurs and nutrients are translocated to support growth of new vegetative tissues, seeds, or other storage organs. The fatty acid levels in leaves began to decline at the onset of leaf senescence and progressively decreased as senescence advanced. In our study, a very small amount of C8 and C17 acids were also detected in aerial parts.

In the present study, the total phenolics (TPC), flavonoids (TFC), flavonols and flavones (TFIC) and proanthocyanidins (TPAC) contents of organic extracts of seeds and aerial parts of *N. sativa* were estimated by colorimetric methods (Table 3). Among the three organic fractions, petroleum ether fraction of seeds contained the highest content of TPC (6.5 mg GAE/g DW) and TPAC (3.6 mg CE/g DW). *N. sativa* seeds were found to be rich in polyphenols, while their content varies considerably depending upon the solvent used and the extraction method (Mariod, Ibrahim, Ismail, and Ismail, 2009). Regardless of the stage of development, the highest levels of TPC, TFC and TFIC were recorded in methanolic extracts of *N. sativa* aerial parts. Richness of methanolic extracts of stems and roots of *N. sativa* in phenolic compounds has also been reported by Bourgou et al. (2008). Our results showed also that the highest level of phenolic compounds was recorded at the fruiting stage.

Phytotoxic activity of organic extracts of *N. sativa* on germination and seedling growth of lettuce

266 The organics extract of *N. sativa* aerial parts showed phytotoxic effect on the germination of
267 lettuce (Table 4). Speed of germination was strongly influenced by chloroform extract of
268 aerial parts harvested at fruiting stage (Germination index = 44% at 6mg/ml) compared with
269 the control. The same extract reduced also the final germination by 50%. Germination was
270 slightly affected by petroleum ether extract of aerial parts harvested at fruiting and chloroform
271 extract harvested at vegetative stage.

272 The data showed strong inhibition on root length in the presence of aerial parts methanolic
273 extracts at whatever stage of development ranging from 25 % to 88 % and in the presence of
274 petroleum ether extracts of plant material collected during vegetative stage (Inhibition ranging
275 from 20% at 37%) (Figure 3). The inhibitory effects were increased with increasing
276 concentrations. The methanol extract of aerial parts harvested at vegetative stage gave the
277 highest inhibitory effect on root growth at 6 mg/ml (88 %). A slight stimulatory effect on root
278 length ranging from 0.6 to 21% was recorded in presence of petroleum ether and chloroform
279 extracts of seeds and aerial parts of *N. sativa*.

280 Overall, shoot length was near the control or slightly inhibited under the influence of the
281 majority of the organic extracts of *N. sativa* (Figure 3). The highest inhibition effect was
282 observed with methanolic extract of aerial parts harvested at vegetative stage with an average
283 of 52% at 6 mg/ml followed by aerial parts collected at fruiting stage with an average of 28 %
284 whatever the concentration used.

285 The strength of the interaction effects between three factors (organic extract type,
286 concentration and plant development stage) on root and shoot growth was compared using
287 General Linear Model Univariate procedure (followed by a post hoc test). Across all factors
288 we found that the combination of organic extract type and plant development stage has a
289 highly significant effect on root growth of lettuce ($P < 0.0001$). Significant interaction

between the three factors was also recorded ($P < 0.001$) on root growth. The results showed also significant interaction between the three 3 factors ($P < 0.0001$) on shoot growth of lettuce. In conclusion, the aerial part harvested at vegetative stage and extracted in methanol was the most phytotoxic on lettuce at 6 mg /ml.

The Whole-range assessment can display a visual comparison between different biological parameters and allowed us to group and to identify the most toxic extracts (Omezzine et al. 2014). Among all the organic extracts of *N. sativa*, the chloroform extract of aerial parts harvested at fruiting stage exhibited the most phytotoxic effect on lettuce germination (Inhibition index = 32%) (Table 5). While, chloroform and petroleum ether extracts of seeds had no effect on germination. Regarding seedling growth, methanolic extract of aerial parts harvested at vegetative stage was the most phytotoxic for root growth ($I = 31\%$) followed by the methanolic extract of aerial parts collected at flowering stage ($I = 24.3\%$). Shoot length was especially affected by the extract of plant material harvested at vegetative stage ($I = 26.9\%$).

The results of this study are different from our previous study, where we registered the highest toxicity on seedling growth for aqueous extract of material harvested at flowering stage (Zribi et al., 2014) and further studies are needed to explain the different behaviours. Similar observation was also reported by Omezzine and Haouala (2013). These authors reported that the difference in toxicity between aqueous and organic extracts could be attributed to the interactions between biologically active compounds that could act in synergy or antagonism. Despite their lower richness in TPC compared to the two other extracts, the high toxicity of methanolic extract from aerial parts harvested at vegetative stage and chloroform extract of those collected at fruiting stage could be explained by the presence highly active allelochemicals. The reduction in seedling growth may be attributed to interference of allelochemicals in major physiological processes of plant metabolism (Arora,

2013). Our study revealed that root length inhibition was more obvious than shoot length. The results of the present study revealed that *N. sativa* seeds and aerial part contain various types of phenols, flavonoids and proanthocyanidins. According to Li et al. (2010), phenolic allelochemicals can lead to increased cell membrane permeability. Consequently, cell contents spill and there is increased lipid peroxidation. Finally, there is slow growth or death of plant tissue. Phenolic allelochemicals can also inhibit plants from absorbing nutrients from surroundings and affect the normal growth of plants (Li, Wang, Ruan, Pan, and Jiang, 2010). Allelopathic effect could also be attributed to long-chain saturated fatty acids such as linoleic acid, palmitic and stearic acids. In fact these fatty acids are reported as showing allelopathic activity (Kakisawa et al., 1988; Inderjit and Keating, 1999; Quintana, El Kassis, Stermitz, and Vivanco, 2009).

Conclusion

Changes in some biochemical characteristics of Tunisian *N. sativa* were assessed during vegetative, flowering and fruiting stages. Results showed that total soluble sugars, chlorophyll (Chl (a + b)) content, and K, Ca and P content decreased with plant age. This study indicates also that the phytochemical composition (fatty acids, phenols, flavonoids and proanthocyanidins contents) and the phytotoxic activity of *N. sativa* vary considerably with the development stage of the plant and according to the nature of the extracting solvent used. The methanolic extracts of aerial parts harvested at the vegetative stage had a significant negative effect on seedling growth of lettuce. However, further studies are required to test the efficacy of extracts from this plant on weed control under field conditions and to isolate the chemical constituents responsible for the phytotoxic activity.

Acknowledgment

339 The author thanks Dr Dhouha Saidana, research scientist at Institute of Olive Tree; Sousse
340 Tunisia) for providing facilities to carry out the analyses of minerals.

341 References

- 342 Ahmad, A., Husain, A., Mujeeb, M., Khan, S.A., Najmi, A.K., Siddique, N.A., Damanhour, Z.A., & Anwar, F.A. (2013). Review on therapeutic potential of *Nigella sativa*: A
343 miracle herb. *Asian Pacific Journal of Tropical Biomedicine*, 3(5), 337-352.
344 doi:10.1016/S2221-1691(13)60075-1.
- 345 Ahmed, M., & Wardle, D.A. (1994). Allelopathic potential of vegetative and flowering
346 ragwort (*Senecio jacobaea* L.) plants against associated pasture species. *Plant Soil*,
347 164, 61–68. doi: 10.1007/BF00010111.
- 348 Akporhonor, E.E., Egwaikhide, P.A., & Odilora, C.A. (2005). Studies on the variation of
349 macro nutrient level uptake of maize plants stem with age. *Journal of Applied Sciences*
350 *and Environmental Management*, 9 (1), 197-199.
- 351 Arora, K. (2013). Allelopathic Influence of *Cassia occidentalis* L. on growth of *Zea mays* L.
352 *Indian Journal of Scientific Research and Technology*, 1(1), 15-17.
- 353 Atta, M.B. (2003). Some characteristics of nigella (*Nigella sativa* L.) seed cultivated in Egypt
354 and its lipid profile. *Food Chemistry*, 83, 63-68.
- 355 Atta-ur-Rahman, M.S., Cun-heng, H., & Clardy, J. (1985). Isolation and structure
356 determination of nigellicine, a novel alkaloid from the seeds of *Nigella sativa*.
357 *Tetrahedron Letters*, 23, 2759–2762.
- 358 Atta-ur-Rahman, M.S., & Zaman, K. (1992). Nigellimine: a new isoquinoline alkaloid from
359 the seeds of *Nigella sativa*. *Journal of Natural Products*, 55, 676-678.
- 360 Atta-ur-Rahman, Malik, S., Hasan, S.S., Choudhary, M.I., Ni, C-Z., & Clardy, J. (1995).
361 Nigellidine, a new indazole alkaloid from the seeds of *Nigella sativa*. *Tetrahedron*
362 *Letters*, 36, 1993–1996.
- 363

364 Bita, C.E., &Gerats, T. (2013). Plant tolerance to high temperature in a changing
 365 environment: scientific fundamentals and production of heat stress-tolerant crops.
 366 *Frontiers in Plant Science*, 4, 273.

367 Bojović, B., & Stojanović, J. (2005). Chlorophylland carotenoid content in wheat cultivars as
 368 a function of mineral nutrition. *Archives of Biological Science Belgrade*, 57 (4), 283-
 369 290.

370 Bourgou, S., Bettaieb, I., Hamrouni, I., & Marzouk, B. (2012). Effect of NaCl on fatty acids,
 371 phenolics and antioxidant activity of *Nigella sativa* organs. *Acta Physiologiae*
 372 *Plantarum*, 34, 379–386. doi 10.1007/s11738-011-0836-3.

373 Bourgou, S., Ksouri, R., Bellila, A., Skandrani, I., Falleh, H., &Marzouk, B. (2008). Phenolic
 374 composition and biological activities of Tunisian *Nigella sativa* L. shoots and roots.
 375 *Comptes Rendus Biologies*, 331, 48–55.

376 Bourgou, S., Pichette, A., Lavoie, S., Marzouka, B., & Legault, J. (2012). Terpenoids isolated
 377 from Tunisian *Nigella sativa* L. essential oil with antioxidant activity and the ability to
 378 inhibit nitric oxide production. *Flavour and Fragrance Journal*, 27, 69–74.

379 Broadhurst, R.B., &Jones, W.T. (1978). Analysis of condensed tannins using acidified
 380 vanillin. *Journal of the Science of Food and Agriculture*, 29,788-794.

381 Burits, M., & Bucar, F (2000). Antioxidant activity of *Nigella sativa* essential oil
 382 *Phytotherapy research*, 14(5), 323-328.

383 Cheikh-Rouhou, S., Besbes, S., Hentati, B., Blecker, C., Deroanne, C., &Attia, H. (2007).
 384 *Nigella sativa* L: Chemical composition and physicochemical characteristics of lipid
 385 fraction. *Food Chemistry*, 101, 673–681.

386 Chiapuso, G., Sanchez, A.M., Reigosa, M.J., Gonzaez, L., &Pellissier, F. (1997). Do
 387 germination indices adequately reflect allelochemical effects on the germination

process? *Journal of Chemical Ecology*, 23, 2445–2453. Doi :
10.1023/B:JOEC.0000006658.27633.15.

Chung, I.M., Ahn, J.K., & Yun, S.J. (2001). Assessment of allelopathic potential of barnyard
grass (*Echinochloa crus-galli*) on rice (*Oryza sativa* L.) cultivars. *Crop Protection*, 20,
921–928.

Çirak, C., Radusiene, J., & Camass, N. (2008). Pseudohypericin and hyperforin in two
Turkish *Hypericum* species: Variation among plant parts and phenological stages.
Biochemical Systematics and Ecology, 36, 377–382.

Cirak, C., Radusiene, J., Janulis, V., & Ivanauskas, L. (2007). Secondary metabolites in
Hypericum perforatum: variation among plant parts and phenological stages. *Botanica*
Helvetica, 117, 29 – 36. doi 10.1007/s00035-007-0777-z.

Dubois, M., Gilles, K.A., Hamilton, P.A., Ruberg, A., & Smith, F. (1956). Colorimetric
method for determination of sugars and related substances. *Analytical Chemistry*, 28
(3), 350-356.

Ervin, G.N., & Wetzel, R.G. (2003). An ecological perspective of allelochemical interference
in land – water interface communities. *Plant Soil*, 256, 13-28. doi :
10.1023/A:1026253128812.

Feussner, I., Kühn, H., & Wasternack, C. (2001). Lipoxygenase dependent degradation of
storage lipids. *Trends in Plant Science*, 6, 268-273.

Fleury, P., & Leclerc, M. (1943). La méthode nitro-vanadomolybdique de Misson pour le
dosage colorimétrique du phosphore. Son intérêt en Biochimie. *Bulletin De La Société*
De Chimie Biologique, 25, 201–205.

Huijser, P., & Schmid, M. (2011). The control of developmental phase transitions in plants,
Development, 138, 4117- 4129. doi:10.1242/dev.063511.

412 Inderjit, K., & Keating, I. (1999). Allelopathy: principles, procedures, processes, and
 413 promises for biological control. *Advances in Agronomy*, 67,141–231.
 414 doi:10.1016/S0065-2113(08)60515-5.

415 Kakisawa, H., Asari, F., Kusumi, T., Toma, T., Sakurai, T., Oohusa, T., Hara, Y., & Chihara,
 416 M. (1988). An allelopathic fatty-acid from the brown alga *Cladosiphon okamuranus*.
 417 *Phytochemistry*, 27, 731–735.

418 Karimi, N., Yari, M., & Ghasmpour, H. R. (2012). Identification and comparison of essential
 419 oil composition and mineral changes in different phenological stages of *Satureja*
 420 *hortensis* L. *Iranian. Journal of Plant Physiology*, 3 (1), 577-582.

421 Konow, E.A., & Wang, Y.T. (2001). Irradiance Levels Affect in vitro and Greenhouse
 422 Growth, Flowering, and Photosynthetic Behavior of A Hybrid Phalaenopsis Orchid.
 423 *Journal of the American Society for Horticultural Science*, 126(5),531–536.

424 Larkindale, J., & Huang, B. (2004). Thermotolerance and antioxidant systems in *Agrostis*
 425 *stolonifera*: involvement of salicylic acid, abscisic acid, calcium, hydrogen peroxide,
 426 and ethylene. *Journal of Plant Physiology*, 161, 405–413. doi: 10.1078/0176-1617-
 427 01239.

428 Li, Z.H., Wang, Q., Ruan, X., Pan, C.D., & Jiang, D.A. (2010). Phenolics and plant
 429 allelopathy. *Molecules*, 15, 8933-8952.

430 Liu, D.L., An, M., & Wu, H. (2007). Implementation of WESIA: Whole-range evaluation of
 431 the strength of inhibition in allelopathic-bioassay. *Allelopathy Journal*, 19, 203–214.

432 Mariod, A.A., Ibrahim, R.M., Ismail, M., & Ismail, N .(2009). Antioxidant activity and
 433 phenolic content of phenolic rich fractions obtained from black cumin (*Nigella sativa*)
 434 seedcake. *Food Chemistry*, 116, 306–312.

435 Martin-Prével, P., Gonard, J., & Gautier, P. (1984). Méthodes analytique de référence, in
 436 L'analyse végétale dans le contrôle de l'alimentation des plantes tempérées et
 437 tropicales. Edition Lavoisier TEC & DOC.

438 Merfort, I., Wray, V., Barakat, H.H., Hussein, S.A.M., Nawwar, M.A.M., & Willuhn, G.
 439 (1997). Flavonoid triglycerides from seeds of *Nigella sativa*. *Phytochemistry*, 46, 359-
 440 363.

441 Millar, A.A., Smith, M.A., & Kunst, L. (2000). All fatty acids are not equal: discrimination in
 442 plant membrane lipids. *Trends in Plant Sciences*, 5 (3), 95-101.

443 Naghiloo, S., Movafeghi, A., Delazar, A., Nazemiyeh, H., Asnaashari, S., & Dadpour, M.R
 444 .(2012). Ontogenetic variation of volatiles and antioxidant Activity in leaves of
 445 *Astragalus compactus* lam. (fabaceae). *Excli Journal*, 11, 436-443.

446 Omezzine, F., & Haouala, R. (2013). Effect of *Trigonella foenum-graecum* L. development
 447 stages on some phytochemicals content and allelopathic potential. *Scientia*
 448 *Horticulturae*, 160, 335–344. doi:10.1016/j.scienta.2013.06.023.

449 Omezzine, F., Bouaziz, M., Simmonds, M.S.J., & Haouala, R. (2014). Variation in chemical
 450 composition and allelopathic potential of mixoploid *Trigonella foenum-graecum* L.
 451 with developmental stages. *Food Chemistry*, 148, 188–195.

452 Quintana, N., El Kassis, E.G., Stermitz, F.R., & Vivanco, J.M. (2009) .Phytotoxic compounds
 453 from roots of *Centaurea diffusa* Lam. *Plant Signaling & Behavior*, 4(1), 9–14.

454 Sultan, M.T., Butt, M.S., Anjum, F.M., Jamil, A., Akhtar, S., & Nasir, M. (2009). Nutritional
 455 profile of indigenous cultivar of black cumin seeds and antioxidant potential of its
 456 fixed and essential oil. *Pakistan Journal of Botany*, 41(3), 1321-1330.

457 Thapliyal, P.N., & Nene, Y.L .(1970). Influence of growth-stage of *Anagallis arvensis* on its
 458 fungitoxicity. *Economic Botany*, 24 (3), 283-285.

459 Toma, C.C., Simu, G.M., Hanganu, D., Olah, N., Vata, F.M.G., Hammami, C., & Hammami,
 460 M. (2013). Chemical composition of the Tunisian *Nigella Sativa*. Note II. Profile on
 461 fatty oil. *Farmacia*, 61(3), 454-458.

462 Urban, L., Lu P., & Thibaud, R. (2004). Inhibitory effect of flowering on leaf photosynthesis
 463 in mango. *Tree Physiology*, 24, 387–399.

464 Velioglu, Y.S., Mazza, G., Gao, L., & Oomah, B.D. (1998). Antioxidant activity and total
 465 phenolics in selected fruits, vegetables, and grain products. *Journal of Agricultural*
 466 *and Food Chemistry*, 46, 4113–4117. doi: 10.1021/jf9801973.

467 Yang, Z., & Ohlrogge, J.B. (2009). Turnover of fatty acids during natural senescence of
 468 *Arabidopsis*, *Brachypodium*, and switchgrass and in *Arabidopsis* β -oxidation mutants.
 469 *Plant Physiology*, 150, 1981-1999. doi: 10.1104/pp.109.140491.

470 Yoruk, O., Tatar, A., Keles, O. N., & Cakir, A. (2017). The value of *Nigella sativa* in the
 471 treatment of experimentally induced rhinosinusitis. *Acta Otorhinolaryngol Italica*,
 472 37(1):32-37. doi: 10.14639/0392-100X-1143.

473 Yu, S., Lian H., & Wang, J.W. (2015). Plant developmental transitions: the role of
 474 microRNAs and sugars. *Current Opinion in Plant Biology*, 2, 1–7.

475 Zhang, M., Bar, g R., Yin, M., Gueta-Dahan, Y., Leikin-Frenkel, A., Salts, Y., Shabtai, S., &
 476 Ben-Hayyim, G. (2005). Modulated fatty acid desaturation via overexpression of two
 477 distinct omega-3 desaturases differentially alters tolerance to various abiotic stresses in
 478 transgenic tobacco cells and plants. *The Plant Journal*, 44, 361–371. doi:
 479 10.1111/j.1365- 313X.2005.02536.x

480 Zribi, I., Omezzine, F., & Haouala, R. (2014). Variation in phytochemical constituents and
 481 allelopathic potential of *Nigella sativa* with developmental stages. *South African*
 482 *Journal of Botany*, 94, 255–262. doi:10.1016/j.sajb.2014.07.009.